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५४







THE
M. Kellogg
ESSENTIAL USES OF THE MOODS

IN GREEK AND LATIN

SET FORTH IN

PARALLEL ARRANGEMENT.

Εὐμνημόνευτα δσα τάξιν τινὰ ἔχει.

ARISTOTLE, *περὶ μνήμης.*



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GIFT KELLOGG

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PA 161

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1879

MAIN

THE classification of sentences, upon which the treatment of the Moods in this pamphlet is based, is that of the English Public School Latin Primer: it is compactly exhibited in the Analysis on page v. The aim of the Editor has been to describe, clearly and accurately, in language not too technical, the actual uses of the moods in Latin and Greek; and he has been especially on his guard against the danger of warping or misrepresenting the frequency of any usage for the sake of a more complete parallelism. A Parallel Syntax is not less instructive for the divergences of idiom which it discloses, than for the coincidences which it illustrates.

Experienced teachers best realize how often, after much attention given to the subject, even good scholars show themselves unable to recognize and distinguish the common, essentially different uses of the moods. And yet the subject is not hopelessly obscure, and it is so vitally important that, in its outlines at least, it should be grasped by every scholar.

The points which have received particular attention, and in the statement of which great pains have been taken, are the following: to sharply distinguish between the uses of the moods in inde-

P R E F A C E.

pendent and dependent sentences ; to show how the uses of the moods in substantive clauses (in their three varieties) are affected by subordination (in *Oratio Obliqua*) ; to set forth the nature of the fourfold classification of conditional sentences ; to explain what is meant by a general or indefinite condition ; and to unfold the important analogy between the uses of the moods in indefinite conditional, and in temporal clauses.

Acknowledgment of important obligations is due to the Rev. HERBERT W. SNEYD-KYNNERSLEY's "Parallel Syntax of Greek and Latin." This publication, issued December, 1877, appeared only a few months later than the "Parallel Rules of Greek and Latin Syntax," of the second part of which this pamphlet is a revised and greatly changed edition. Valuable aid has also been derived from Mr. ARTHUR SIDGWICK's "Introduction to Greek Prose Composition," and the various Latin and Greek Grammars have been freely drawn upon.

Suggestions from teachers who may use the pamphlet will be most welcome.

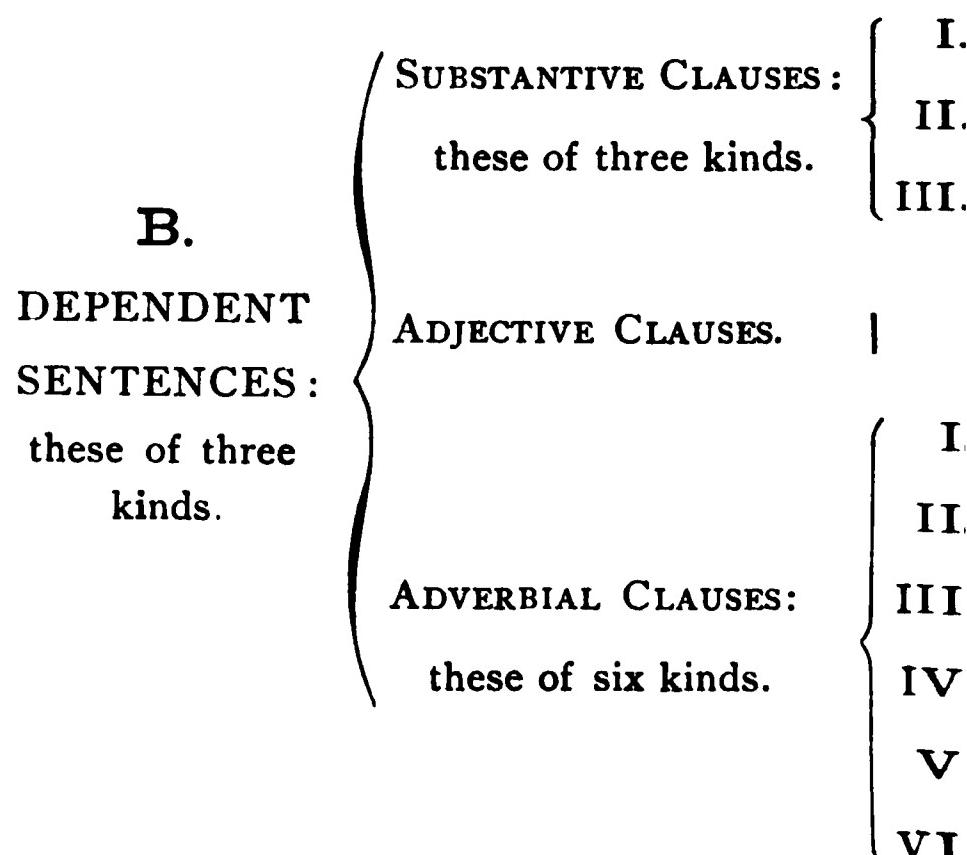
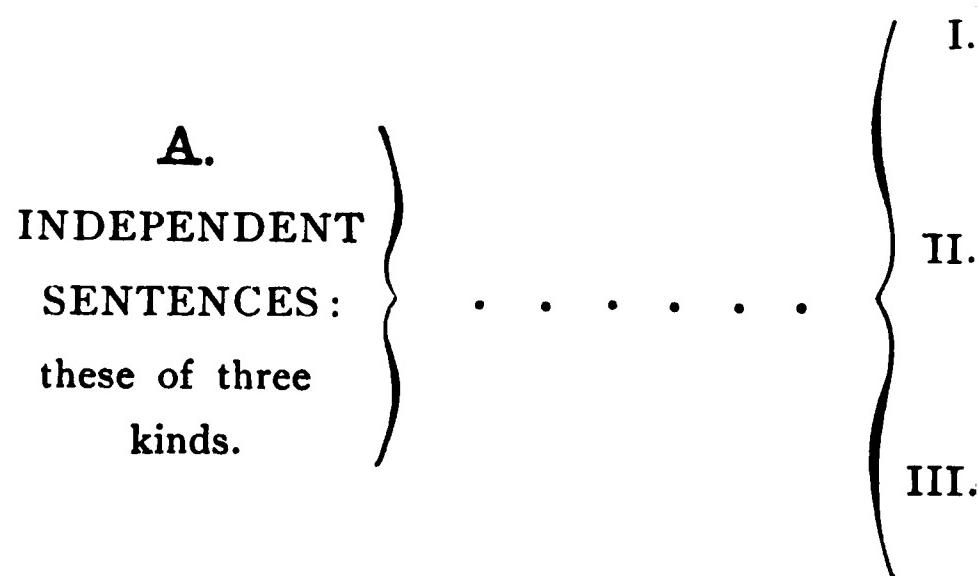
ROBERT P. KEEP.

WILLISTON SEMINARY,

June 14, 1879.



CLASSIFICATION



OF SENTENCES.

STATEMENT. { 1. Positive Assertion.

(Declarative Sentence.) { 2. Qualified Assertion.

QUESTION. { 1. Question.

(Interrogative Sentence.) { (Single or Double.)

COMMAND. { 2. Deliberative or
 Dubitative Question.

COMMAND. { 1. Command.

(Imperative Sentence.) { 2. Exhortation.
 3. Wish.

INDIRECT STATEMENT. }

INDIRECT QUESTION. }

INDIRECT REQUEST. }

These are all varieties of Indirect Quotation, or *Oratio Obliqua*.

RELATIVE CLAUSES.

FINAL.

CONSECUTIVE.

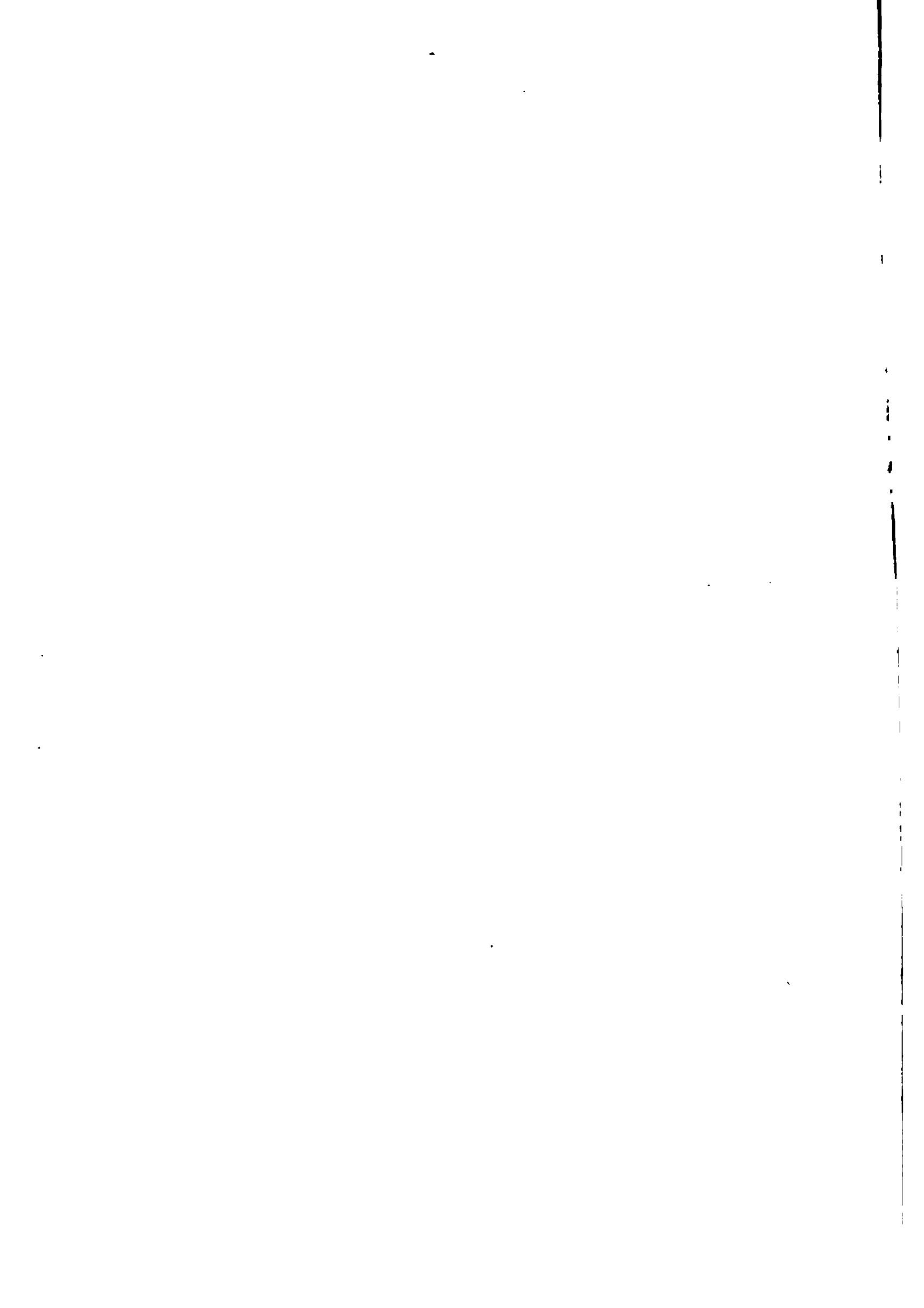
CAUSAL.

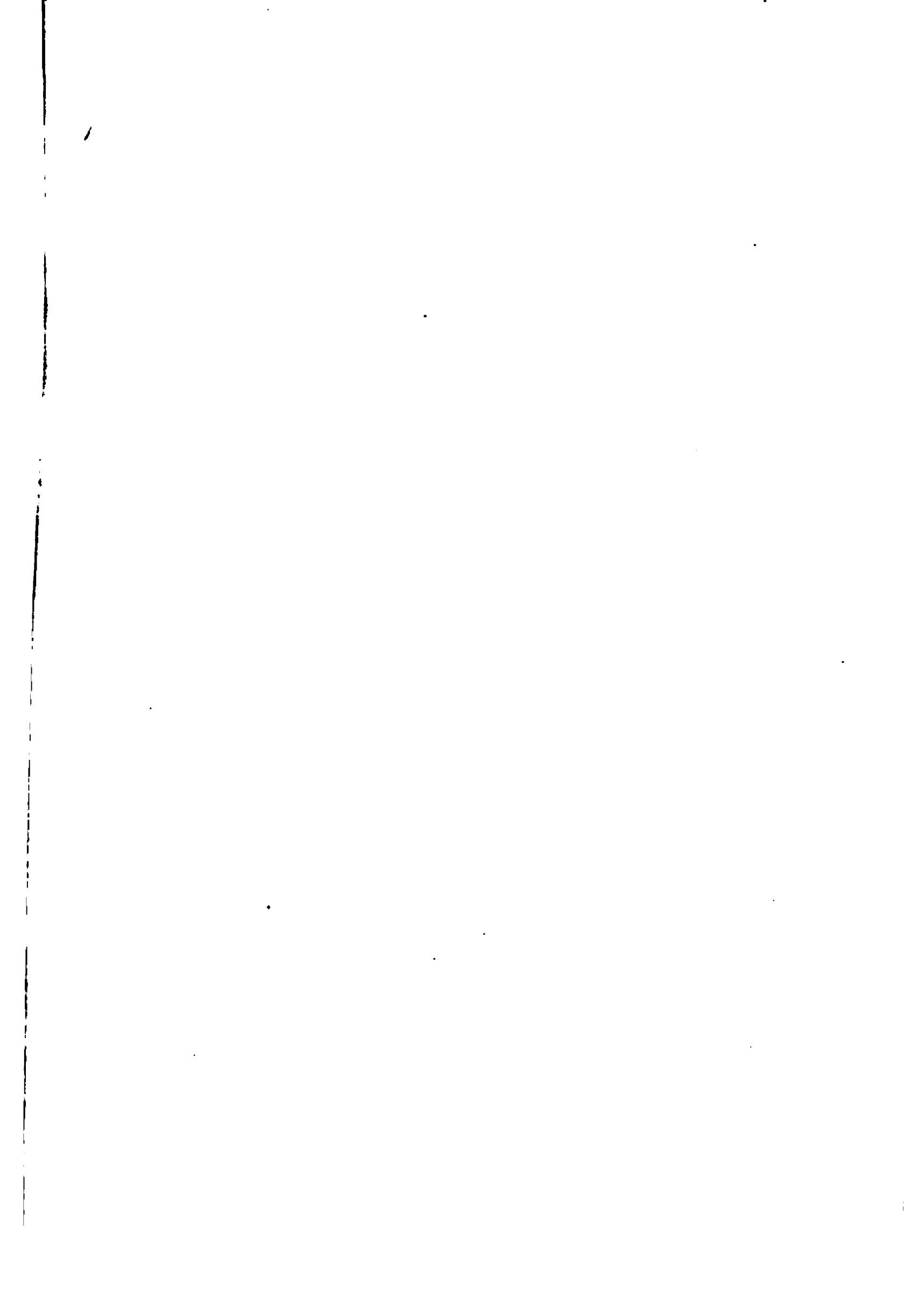
CONDITIONAL.

CONCESSIVE.

TEMPORAL.

Very frequently in Greek, and less commonly in Latin, a participle may be the equivalent of a relative clause, or of an adverbial clause in each of its varieties.





SYNTAX OF

A.—USES OF MOODS IN

LATIN.

Direct Statement.

1.

i. Direct statement is made by the indicative.

Homo vēnit.

The man came.

Potential Subjunctive.

2. Qualified or modest assertion is made by the present or perfect subjunctive.

Velim, voluerim.

I would like.

Veniat, vēnerit.

He may come, he may have come.

NOTE.—The imperfect subjunctive, in this use, implies what cannot be.

vellem, cf. ἡβούλομην ἄν.

I could wish.

(1)



THE MOODS.

INDEPENDENT SENTENCES.

GREEK.

Direct Statement.

1.

1. Direct statement is made by the indicative.

οὐ ἀνήρ ήλθεν.

REM.—Emphatic denial is made by the (aor.) subjunctive, or by the future indicative preceded by *οὐ μή*.

οὐ μὴ παύσωμαι.

I will never cease.

Potential Optative.

2. Qualified or modest assertion is made by the optative with *ἄν* (neg. *οὐ*).

Βουλοίμην ᄂν.

Ἐκθοι ᄂν.

Direct
Question.
2.

1. Questions (single or double) are introduced by interrogative pronouns and adverbs, or, rarely, are indicated by the mark of interrogation (?), and employ the indicative.

Quid vis?

What do you want?

Ubi nam habitas?

Where do you dwell?

REM.— **Ne** (enclitic), appended to the emphatic word, asks for information; **nonne** expects the answer *yes*; **num** expects the answer *no*.

Doubtful
Question.

2. In questions implying doubt as to the possibility or propriety of an action (dubitative or deliberative questions), the subjunctive is used (in all tenses).

Quid faciam?

What am I to do?

Quid de eo homine dicam?

What am I to say concerning this man?

G R E E K.

Direct
Question.

2.

- i. Questions (single or double) are introduced by interrogative pronouns and adverbs, or are indicated by the mark of interrogation (;), and employ the indicative.

τί θέλεις ;

ποῦ οἴκεῖς ;

ἢ λαθεῖς ;

Did you come?

REM.—Common interrogative particles are: *άρα* and *ἢ*, these ask for information; *οὐ*, *οὐκον*, *ἄλλο τι* (*ἢ*), *πῶς οὐ*, expect the answer *yes*; *μή*, in a question, expects the answer *no*.

Doubtful
Question.

2. In questions implying doubt as to the possibility or propriety of an action (dubitative or deliberative questions), the first, sometimes the third, person of the subjunctive is used (neg. *μή*).

τί ποιήσω ;

τί εἴπω περὶ ἐκείνου τοῦ ἀνδρός ;

NOTE.—The subjunctive of doubt is frequently joined with *βούλει*, *θέλεις*, κ. τ. λ.

βούλει
βούλεσθε
θέλεις
θέλετε

} *ἀπίωμεν*;

Do you wish we should go away?

(4)

L A T I N.

Direct
Command.

3.

i. Command is expressed by the imperative mood.

Curre, currite.

Run.

Fac hoc.

Do this.

NOTE.—The second and third persons of the present subjunctive are frequently used to express command.

REM.—Prohibition, or negative command, is expressed in three ways:—

(a) by **ne** with perfect subjunctive.

Ne hoc feceris.

Do not do this.

(b) by **noli** or **nolite** with infinitive.

Noli (nolite) hoc facere.

(c) by **cave ne** or **cavete ne** with present subjunctive.

Cave ne hoc facias.

NOTE.—We cannot say **ne fac** or **ne facias**.

Exhortation.

2. Exhortation is expressed by the first plural of the subjunctive (neg. **ne**).

Eamus.

Let us go.

Wish.

3. Wish, if attainable, is expressed by the primary tenses of the subjunctive: if not, by the secondary tenses of the subjunctive (neg. **ne**).

His Di gratiam referant!

These may the Gods requite!

Utinam tum tibi adfuissem!

Would that I had then been present.

Utinam Cyrus viveret!

Would that Cyrus were alive!

Direct
Command.

3.

1. Command is expressed by the imperative mood : by the present imperative, if the command is general ; by the aorist imperative, if it is particular.

σπουδαζε.

Be diligent (always).

ποίησον τοῦτο.

Do this (particular thing).

REM. — Prohibition, or negative command, is expressed by μή with the present imperative, if the prohibition is general : by μή with the second (rarely third) singular or plural aorist subjunctive, if the prohibition is particular.

μὴ κλέπτε.

Do not steal (at all).

μὴ κλέψης.

Leave off stealing.

Exhortation.

2. Exhortation is expressed by the first plural of the subjunctive (neg. μή).

ἴωμεν.

Wish.

3. Wish, conceived as attainable, is expressed by the optative (neg. μή) : as unattainable, by the past tenses of the indicative with εἴθε or εἰ γάρ, or by the aorist ὥφελον with an infinitive.

Τούτους μὲν οἱ θεοὶ ἀποτίσαιντο.

Εἴθε σοι τότε συνεγενόμην.

**Ωφελε μὲν Κῦρος ζῆν (Debuit Cyrus vivere!).*

B.—USES OF MOODS IN LATIN.

Classification of Tenses.

4.

Tenses are classed as Primary and Secondary. Primary: present, perfect definite, future, and future perfect. Secondary: imperfect, perfect indefinite, pluperfect.

In Latin, we have sequence of *tense*; that is, the tense of the subordinate clause corresponds to that of the principal sentence.

Sequence of Tenses.

5.

Primary tenses regularly follow primary; secondary tenses regularly follow secondary.

Da mihi illum librum ut accipiam.

Give me that book that I may take it.

Illum librum mihi dedit ut acciperem.

He gave me that book that I might take it.

Classification of Substantive Clauses.

6.

Substantive clauses, or clauses which are the subject or the object of some verb, are classified as follows:

- | | | |
|------------------------|---|---------------------------|
| I. Indirect Statement. | } | All forms of |
| II. Indirect Question. | | Indirect Quotation,
or |
| III. Indirect Request. | | Oratio Obliqua. |

DEPENDENT SENTENCES.

G R E E K.

Classification of Tenses.

4.

Tenses are classed as Primary and Secondary. Primary : present, perfect, future, and future perfect. Secondary : imperfect, aorist, and pluperfect.

In Greek, we have sequence of *moods* : the subjunctive, in all its tenses, is regarded as primary ; the optative, in all its tenses, is regarded as secondary, — hence called also historical subjunctive.

Sequence of Moods.

5.

The subjunctive is the regular attendant of primary tenses ; the optative, of secondary.

δός μοι ἐκεῖνο τὸ βιβλίον ἵνα λάβω.

ἔδωκέ μοι ἐκεῖνο τὸ βιβλίον ἵνα λάβοιμι.

Classification of Substantive Clauses.

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- | | |
|------------------------|--|
| I. Indirect Statement. | All forms of
Indirect Quotation,
or
Oratio Obliqua. |
| II. Indirect Question. | |
| III. Indirect Request. | |

(8)

L A T I N.

Oratio Obliqua.

REM. 1.— Indirect quotation, or **Oratio Obliqua**, occurs whenever another person's thought is reported, but not his words. The thought may have been (originally) expressed (in direct discourse) : as a declaration ; as a question ; as a command or request. When reported, it will usually follow a verb of *feeling*, *thinking*, or *declaring*, and will appear as : indirect statement ; indirect question ; or indirect request.

REM. 2.— Substantive clauses have been defined as clauses which (like a substantive) are the subject or object of some verb. They generally stand as the object of a verb (of *feeling*, *thinking*, or *declaring*) ; in which case they are called object-clauses.

Some verbs which are not transitive — that is, which do not govern an object-accusative, or even a dative or an objective genitive — may take an object-clause. In such cases, it may stand as a cognate-accusative, repeating the idea contained in the verb, or as an object of the action which the verb implies.

Indirect
Statement :
how
expressed.
7.

i. The regular form of the indirect statement (that is, of its main proposition) after verbs of *feeling*, *thinking*, and *declaring*, is the accusative with the infinitive.

Dixit Xenophontem imperatorem esse.

He said that Xenophon was general.

G R E E K.

Oratio Obliqua.

REM. 1.—Indirect quotation, or **Oratio Obliqua**, occurs whenever another person's thought is reported, but not his words. The thought may have been (originally) expressed (in direct discourse): as a declaration ; as a question ; as a command or request. When reported, it will usually follow a verb of *feeling*, *thinking*, or *declaring*, and will appear as: indirect statement ; indirect question ; or indirect request.

REM. 2.—Substantive clauses have been defined as clauses which (like a substantive) are the subject or object of some verb. They generally stand as the object of a verb (of *feeling*, *thinking*, or *declaring*) ; in which case they are called object-clauses.

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Indirect Statement: how expressed. 7.

1. A regular form of the indirect statement (that is, of its main proposition) after verbs of *feeling*, *thinking*, and *declaring*, is the accusative with the infinitive ; but the nominative usually takes the place of the accusative when it would repeat the subject of the principal verb.

"*Ἐφη Ξενοφῶντα στρατηγὸν εἶναι.*

(10)

LATIN.

Indirect
Statement :
how
expressed.

REM. — Verbs of *hoping*, *promising*, and *undertaking* take the future infinitive with the subject-accusative.

Promisit se venturum esse.

He promised that he would come.

2. After impersonal verbs such as *it happens*, *it is expedient*, *it remains*, *it follows* (e. g. *accidit*, *fieri solet*, *expedit*, *restat*, *sequitur*, &c.), — the substantive clause takes the form of **ut** with the subjunctive.

Expedit ut Romae sim.

It is expedient that I be at Rome.

G R E E K.

Indirect Statement :
how expressed.

NOTE.—By the use of the nominative or accusative, the Greek regularly indicates whether the subject of the infinitive is the same as that of the principal verb, or not.

"Ἐφη αὐτὸς, οὐκ ἔκεινον, στρατηγεῖν.

He said that he himself, not that one, was commander.

REM.—Verbs of *promising* take the future infinitive; verbs of *hoping*, more commonly the aorist infinitive, with *άν*.

ὑπέσχετό μοι τοῦτο ποιήσειν.

ἔλπίζω σε ταῦτα ποιῆσαι ἄν.

2. Equally common in Greek with the accusative with infinitive after verbs of *saying*, *thinking*, &c., is the substantive clause introduced by *ὅτι* or *ὡς*. The verb of the substantive clause takes the indicative after a primary tense; the optative (generally) after a secondary tense.

οἶδα ὅτι βασιλεὺς ἀπέθανεν.

I know that the king died.

ηὖδειν ὅτι βασιλεὺς μαχόμενος ἀποθάνοι (ἀπέθανεν).

I knew that the king died fighting.

REM. 1.—The indicative may at any time be employed after a secondary tense when it is desired, for the sake of vividness, to approach the original language of the speaker.

REM. 2.—Of the three common verbs of *saying*, φημι regularly takes the infinitive; λέγω may take *ὅτι* or *ὡς*; εἰπον always takes *ὅτι* or *ὡς*, except when it signifies *bid*.

3. After verbs of emotion, **gaudeo**, **doleo**, &c., the substantive clause may be the accusative with the infinitive, but very often takes the form of **quod**, with the indicative.

Gaudeo quod domum tutus abiit.

I am glad that he has returned home safe.

Employ-
ment of
Mood in
Indirect
Statement.
(Subordinate
Clauses.)

8.

General Principle governing the Employment of Mood in Subordinate Clauses of Indirect Statement.

Dependent clauses, connected with the main proposition (accusative with infinitive, Rule 7), by the various conjunctions, employ the subjunctive.

REM.—The dependent clauses, the verbs of which thus pass into the subjunctive, may be of the following varieties :—

1. Interrogative clauses (cf. Rule 9),—yet rhetorical questions may employ the infinitive.
2. Imperative clauses.
3. Relative clauses, whether introduced by relatives or relative adverbs.
4. Adverbial clauses in their different varieties (cf. Rule 14).

DIRECT STATEMENT.

Ego paratus sum :—
quid vultis ? Ne *dubitate* a-
perte dicere ea quae in animo
habetis.

(13)

INDIRECT STATEMENT.

[Dixit] se paratum esse :—
quid *vellet* (1) ? ne *dubita-*
rent (2) aperte dicere ea quae in
animo *haberent* (3).

G R E E K.

3. Verbs of *feeling*, *knowing*, *judging*, — e. g. *αισθάνομαι*, *οἶδα*, *μέμνημαι*, — are more commonly followed by a participle than by the accusative with the infinitive. This participle is called a supplementary participle.

οἶδά σε κακὸν ὅντα.

I know that you are cowardly.

οἶδα κακὸς ὡν.

I know that I am cowardly.

REM. — With the infinitive the meaning is different.

οἶδα κακὸς εἰναι.

I know how to be a coward.

Employ-
ment of
Mood in
Indirect
Statement
(after
ὅτι or
ὡς).
8.

General Principle governing the Employment of Mood in Indirect Statement after ὅτι or ὡς.

When the tense of the principal verb is secondary, the mood of all the dependent clauses is (usually) changed (in passing from direct to indirect statement) to the optative.

Direct Statement.

ἐὰν ὑμᾶς ἴδω ἀθύμους, κακὸς ἔσομαι.

If I see you faint-hearted, I shall be cowardly.

Indirect Statement.

ἔλεξεν ὅτι, εἰ ἥμᾶς ἴδοι ἀθύμους, κακὸς ἔσοιτο.

He said that, if he should see us faint-hearted, he should be cowardly.

L A T I N.

DIRECT STATEMENT.

Si pacem populus Romanus cum Helvetiis faciet, in eam partem *ibunt* atque ibi *erunt* Helvetii, ubi eos Caesar *constituerit* atque esse *voluerit*: sin bello *persequi perseverabit*, *reminiscere* (inquit) et veteris incommodi populi Romani et pristinae virtutis Helvetiorum.

INDIRECT STATEMENT.

Si pacem populus Romanus cum Helvetiis *faceret* (4) in eam partem *ituros* atque ibi *futuros* Helvetios, ubi eos Caesar *constituisset* (3) atque esse *voluisset* (3): sin bello *persequi perseveraret* (4) *reminisceretur* (2) et veteris incommodi populi Romani et pristinae virtutis Helvetiorum.

NOTE. — The subjunctive of direct statement, modified in tense according to Rule 5, is retained in indirect statement except in the apodosis of conditional sentences, where it becomes future infinitive.

Mood in
Indirect
Question.
9.

Indirect questions are introduced by interrogative pronouns and particles. The verb of the interrogative clause is regularly in the subjunctive.

Quaeram quis sit.

Quaesivi quis esset.

REM. 1. — The subjunctive is explained on the same principle as the subjunctive of indirect statement.

REM. 2. — Any dependent sentence, though not strictly interrogative, if introduced by an interrogative word, may take the subjunctive.

Quam sis audax, omnes intelligunt.

All know how bold you are.

G R E E K.

Exc. — The uniform exception to the above rule is in the case of conditional sentences of the second form, contrary to reality (cf. Rule 21), where the indicatives never change to optatives.

Direct Statement.

Εἰ μὴ ὑμεῖς ἤλθετε, ἐπορευόμεθα ἂν.

If you had not come, we should be marching.

Indirect Statement.

Ἄπήγγειλεν ὅτι εἰ μὴ ὑμεῖς ἤλθετε, ἐπορευόμεθα ἂν.

He announced that, if you had not come, we should be marching.

REM. — By what may be called the “principle of vividness,” it is common, in Greek, to employ, where we should expect the optative of indirect statement, the original language of the speaker.

ἡπόρουν τί λέγει (instead of **λέγοι**).

I was at a loss to know what he meant.

Mood in
Indirect
Question.
9.

Indirect questions are introduced by interrogative pronouns and particles. After a primary tense, the verb of the interrogative clause suffers no change; after a secondary tense, it passes regularly into the optative.

Ἐρωτήσω ὅστις ἔστι.

Ἡρόμην ὅστις εἴη.

REM. 1. — The optative is explained on the same principle as the optative of indirect statement. By the “principle of vividness” the original language of the speaker may be employed in the indirect question, after a secondary tense.

REM. 2. — The indirect interrogatives are commonly employed in Greek, in the indirect question, instead of the direct interrogatives: e. g. **ὅπου**, **ὅπόθεν**, **ὅποι**, **ὅπῃ**, **ὅπάτε**, **ὅπως**, **ὅστις**, **ὅπόστος**, **ὅποῖος**, **ὅπότερος**, instead of **ποῦ**, **πόθεν**, **ποῖ**, **πῇ**, **πάτε**, **πῶς**, **τίς**, **πόστος**, **ποῖος**, **πότερος**.

Indirect
Request.

10.

Mood in
Indirect
Request.

11.

When a command or a request is made to depend upon a verb of requesting, advising, reminding, it becomes an indirect request.

i. Indirect request, after verbs of requesting, advising, and reminding, is regularly expressed by the subjunctive (object-clause) with **ut** or **ne**.

Te rogo ut hoc facias.

Te rogavi ut hoc faceres.

I ask (asked) you to do this.

Suadeo (vobis) ut vosmet servetis.

I advise you to save yourselves.

G R E E K.

REM. 3.—The subjunctive is *not* an attendant of the indirect question, in Greek: where we find it, it is the deliberative or dubitative subjunctive. *E.g.,—*

Oὐκ οἶδα πῶς ἀποδρῶ.

I don't know how I am to escape.

The direct question was,—

πῶς ἀποδρῶ;

How am I to escape?

which, after a secondary tense, by the principle of indirect discourse, would pass into the optative,—

οὐκ γῆδειν πῶς ἀποδράτην,

or, by the “principle of vividness,” might remain unchanged:

οὐκ γῆδειν πῶς ἀποδρῶ.

I did not know how I should escape.

Indirect
Request.

10.

When a command or a request is made to depend upon a verb of requesting, advising, reminding, it becomes an indirect request.

Mood in
Indirect
Request.

11.

i. Indirect request, after verbs of requesting, advising, and reminding, is regularly expressed, as in English, by the infinitive.

σοῦ δέομαι ταῦτα ποιεῖν.

σοῦ ἐδεήθην ταῦτα ποιεῖν.

συμβουλεύω ὑμῖν σώζεσθαι.

L A T I N.

Mood in
Indirect
Request.

REM.— **Jubeo**, **veto**, **cogo**, **sino**, and sometimes **volo**, are followed by the infinitive.

2. After verbs of fear or caution, the object of apprehension is expressed by **ne** with the subjunctive, when it is feared something will happen ; by **ut** or **ne non**, when it is feared that something will not happen.

Vereor ne hoc facias.

I fear that (or lest) you will do this.

Verebar ut (ne non) hoc faceres.

I was fearing that (or lest) you should not do this.

REM.— This usage comes under the head of indirect request : because, I fear that = I beg you that not ; and I fear that not = I beg you that. Here, as in Rule 15, the line which separates indirect requests from final clauses cannot always be drawn.

Adjective
Clauses.
12.

An adjective clause is one which, like an adjective, qualifies a noun. Relative clauses are adjective clauses, because the relative clause, like an adjective, qualifies the antecedent. But since relative clauses, in Latin, usually convey a purpose, result, cause, condition, or concession, they may modify the *verb* of the principal sentence, and hence may employ the moods in the same way as adverbial clauses.

G R E E K.

Mood in
Indirect
Request.

REM. 1.— Instead of the infinitive, the Greek employs διπλός, with future indicative, after verbs denoting attention, care, effort.

REM. 2.— In the later Greek (*e. g.* of the New Testament), the clause with οὐδα and the subjunctive frequently takes the place of the infinitive. In modern Greek, this construction has wholly displaced the infinitive.

2. After verbs of fear or caution, the object of apprehension is expressed by a clause with μή, when it is feared something will happen ; with μὴ οὐ, when it is feared something will not happen. After a primary tense, we have the subjunctive ; after a secondary tense, the optative (historical subjunctive).

φοβούμαι μὴ ταῦτα ποιήσῃς.

ἔφοβούμην μὴ οὐ ταῦτα ποιήσεις.

REM.— This usage comes under the head of indirect request: because, I fear that = I beg you that you may not ; and I fear that you may not = I beg that you may. Here, as in Rule 15, the line between indirect requests and final clauses cannot always be accurately drawn.

Adjective
Clauses.

12.

An adjective clause is one which, like an adjective, qualifies a noun. Relative clauses are adjective clauses, because the relative clause, like an adjective, qualifies the antecedent.

L A T I N.

Mood in
Relative
Clauses.

13.

i. A relative clause, when simply adjective, takes its verb in the indicative.

Vir quem omnes diligunt.

A man whom all love (= a man loved by all).

2. Relative clauses more usually express purpose, result, cause, concession ; and, in all these cases, require the subjunctive.

Legationem mittere quae (ut ea) pacem roget.

To send an embassy to ask peace (purpose).

Quis tam stultus est qui (ut is) ignoret?

Who is so simple as not to know (result)?

**Clearchum ad colloquium vocavit qui (cum
is) maxime Graecorum honorari videretur.**

He summoned Clearchus to the council, since he seemed to be the most honored of the Greeks (cause).

Adverbial
Clauses.

14.

Adverbial clauses, or those which modify verbs, are divided into six classes.

- I. Final.
- II. Consecutive.
- III. Causal.

- IV. Conditional.
- V. Concessive.
- VI. Temporal.

G R E E K.

Mood in
Relative
Clauses.

13.

i. Relative clauses regularly require the indicative.

ἀνὴρ δν πάντες φιλοῦσιν.

2. Relative clauses, not infrequently, as in Latin, express purpose, result, or cause; but even in such cases require the indicative.

πρεσβείαν πέμπειν ἵτις (or ἥ) ζητήσει εἰρήνην.

Tís οὗτως εὐήθης ὅστις (or rarely ὃς) ἀγνοεῖ;

Κλέαρχον σύμβουλον παρεκάλεσε ὃς γε ἐδόκει προτιμηθῆναι μάλιστα τῶν Ἑλλήνων.

Adverbial
Clauses.

14.

Adverbial clauses, or those which modify verbs, are divided into six classes.

- I. Final.
- II. Consecutive.
- III. Causal.

- IV. Conditional.
- V. Concessive.
- VI. Temporal.

L A T I N.

Final
Clauses.
15.

1. Final clauses are such as denote purpose, — *finis*, “end,” *to the end that*. They are introduced by **ut**, **ne**, **quo** (with comparatives), **quominus** (after words and phrases implying hindrance), and by relative words: they require, in all cases, the subjunctive.

Pontem rumpit ne transeatis.

He breaks down the bridge that you may not cross.

Pontem rupit ne transiretis.

He broke down the bridge that you might not cross.

NOTE. — The relative or relative adverb, when denoting purpose, may be resolved into **ut** or **ne** with a personal pronoun or a demonstrative word.

2. Various ways of expressing purpose: —

- (1.) **ut**, **ne**, **quo**, **quominus**, with subjunctive.
- (2.) Future participle active.
- (3.) Relative clause with subjunctive.
- (4.) Genitive case of gerund, or gerundive, with **causâ**.
- (5.) Accusative case of gerund, or gerundive, with **ad**.
- (6.) Supine in **um** after verb of motion.

REM. — The infinitive never expresses purpose in prose Latin.

G R E E K.

Final
Clauses.
15.

i. Final clauses are introduced by *ἴνα*, *ὅπως*, *ώς* (neg. *ἴνα μή*, *ὅπως μή*, *ώς μή*) : they require the subjunctive after a primary, the optative (historical subjunctive) after a secondary tense.

λύει τὴν γέφυραν ώς μή διαβῆτε.

ἔλυε τὴν γέφυραν ώς μή διαβαίητε.

2. Various ways of expressing purpose :—

- (1.) *ἴνα*, *ώς*, *ὅπως*, with subjunctive or optative.
- (2.) Future participle, often with *ώς*.
- (3.) Relative clause, with future indicative.
- (4.) Genitive case of infinitive, with neuter article *τοῦ*.
- (5.) *ὅπως*, with future indicative after verbs of effort (cf. Rule 11, i, Rem. i.).
- (6.) The infinitive alone or with *ώστε*.

REM.—All final clauses, when negative, require *μή*.

EXAMPLES.

Final
Clauses.

1. **Ibant ut pacem peterent.**
They were going to beg for peace.
2. **Ibant pacem petituri** (not in Cicero).
3. **Ibant qui (= ut ii) pacem peterent.**
4. **Ibant pacem petendi } causâ (gratia).
pacis petendae }**
5. **Ibant ad pacem petendam
petendum (rare).**
6. **Ibant pacem petitum.**

Consecutive
Clauses.

16.

1. Consecutive clauses are such as denote result. They are introduced by **ut** (neg. **ut non**) and **quin** (after negative and interrogative expressions), and require the subjunctive.

Res tam horribilis erat, ut nemo dormiret.

The affair was so horrible that no one slept.

**Nemo } est quin putet.
Quis }**

There is no one }
Who is there } but thinks.

2. The relative clause denoting result (**qui = ut ego, ut tu, ut is, &c.**) is especially common in Latin. For this we have the following rule :—

EXAMPLES.

**Final
Clauses.**

1. Cf. examples under Rule 15, I.

2. *ἡλθε αἱρήσων τὴν πόλιν.*

He went to take the city.

3. *πρεσβείαν πέμπειν ἥτις ἔρει.*

To send an embassy to speak.

4. *ἔφαγε τοῦ μὴ λίμου ἀποθανεῖν.*

He ate in order not to die of hunger.

5. *φρύντιζ' ὅπως πράξεις.*

Consider how you may do it.

6. *τὴν πόλιν φυλάττειν αὐτοῖς παρέδοσαν.*

We handed over to them the city to guard it.

**Consecutive
Clauses.**

16.

1. Consecutive clauses are such as denote result. They are commonly introduced by *ὡστε*, and generally require the infinitive (neg. *μὴ*).
•

τὸ πρᾶγμα ἦν οὕτω δεινὸν ὡστε μὴ κοιμηθῆναι.

The affair was so horrible that one could not sleep.

2. If it is desired to indicate that the result has actually followed (*i. e.* if the fact as a *fact*, rather than as a *result*, is to be emphasized), the indicative is used.

A relative clause expressing some characteristic of an antecedent requires the subjunctive.

Sunt qui (= tales ut ii) putent.

There are some who think.

Causal
Clauses.

17.

Causal clauses express a cause or reason, and are introduced by **quod**, **quia**; **cum**, **quoniam**. The first two of these conjunctions are regularly joined with the indicative; the last two, with the subjunctive. But any causal conjunction may take the subjunctive, when the reason is stated, not as a fact, but simply on another's (or subjectively on one's own) authority.

**In nomine Caesaris gratulatio decreta est quod
Gallos vicerat (fact).**

**Socratem insimulaverunt quod juventutem cor-
rumperet.**

They brought (a false) accusation against Socrates, because
(as they said) he corrupted the youth.

NOTE. — In a case like this last example, **quod . . . corrumperet** is not only the cause, but also the subject-matter of the charge, and the subjunctive could be explained on the principle stated in Rule 8, Latin and Greek.

REM. — Causal clauses introduced by the relative are common in Latin, and require the subjunctive (**qui = cum ego**, **cum tu**, **cum ille**, &c.).

O vis veritatis quae (cum ea) se defendat!

O the power of truth to defend (since it defends) itself !

G R E E K.

τὸ πρᾶγμα οὗτο δεινὸν ἦν, ὥστε ὁ βασιλεὺς οὐκ
(not μή) ἐκοιμήθη.

The affair was so horrible that the king did not sleep.

Causal
Clauses.
17.

Causal clauses express a cause or reason, and are introduced by ὅτι, ὡς, *because, on the ground that*; ἐπεί, ἐπειδή, ὅτε, ὅπότε, *since*; and by other conjunctions of similar meaning.

They are regularly joined with the indicative; but when the cause is assigned on another's authority, the optative may be used after a secondary tense.

ἐπεὶ ἔμοὶ οὐ θέλετε πείσεσθαι, ἐγὼ σὺν ὑμῖν ἔψομαι.

Since you do not choose to obey me, I will follow you.

Kύρον διέβαλλεν ως τῷ ἀδελφῷ ἐπιβουλεύοι.

He accused Cyrus, on the ground that he was plotting against his brother.

NOTE. — In a case like this last example, ὡς . . . ἐπιβουλεύοι is not only the alleged cause, but also the subject-matter of the charge, and the optative is accounted for by Rule 8.

REM. — Two other common ways of expressing a cause are :—

1. By a participle.

λέγω τούτου ἔνεκα, βουλόμενος, κ. τ. λ.

This is the reason why I speak, because I wish, &c.

2. By διά with the infinitive preceded by the neuter article τό.

διὰ τὸ ἀγαθὸς εἶναι, τοῦτο ἐποίει.

He used to do this, because he was brave.

L A T I N.

Of
Conditional
Sentences.

18.

A conditional sentence consists of two parts : the conditional clause or *if*-clause, called the Protasis ; and the main clause or *then*-clause, called the Apodosis.

The conditional clause is introduced by the conjunctions **si**, **nisi**, or **si non**.

(Cf. Note on opposite page.)

Classifica-
tion
under Four
Forms.

19.

Conditional Sentences appear in four forms, the nature of which is indicated by the following names : **Sumptio Dati**, **Sumptio Falsi**, **Sumptio Dandi**, **Sumptio Ficti**.

(29)

Of
Conditional
Sentences.

18.

A conditional sentence consists of two parts : the conditional clause or *if*-clause, called the Protasis ; and the main clause or *then*-clause, called the Apodosis.

The conditional clause is introduced either by *εἰ* or *ἐάν* (= *εἰ ἀν*) also written *ἢν*, *ἄν*. *εἰ* may be joined with the indicative or optative ; *ἐάν* is found only with the subjunctive. The negative of the Protasis is always *μή*, — that of the Apodosis, always *οὐ*.

NOTE. — The word Protasis (Greek Πρότασις, προτείνω, *to extend*) properly means that which is *put forward* or *advanced*. Apodosis (Greek Ἀπόδοσις, ἀποδίδωμι, *to correspond*) signifies the *corresponding clause*.

Protasis, then, = *what is advanced*; Apodosis = *the reply*.

If you say this, then I answer.

(Cf. in German :

Wenn du so sagst, so antworte ich.

Cf. also in Greek, especially in Homer, —

Ἐως δὲ ταῦθ' ὅρμαινε . . . θλαθε δέ τοι Αθήνη.

While he was debating, . . . then came Athena.)

It is very important to notice, that although the Protasis comes first, and calls forth the Apodosis, as a question calls forth an answer, yet that the Apodosis is always the main clause.

Conditional Sentences appear in four forms, the nature of which is indicated by the following names : **Sumptio Dati**, **Sumptio Falsi**, **Sumptio Dandi**, **Sumptio Ficti**.

Classification
under Four
Forms.

19.

First form:
Condition
assumed as

True.
20.

I. Sumptio Dati. Truth of supposition taken for granted.

Indicative (any tense) in the Protasis;

Indicative (any tense) in the Apodosis.

Si adest, bene est.

If he is present, it is well.

Si arae sunt, Di quoque sunt.

If there are altars, there are also Gods.

Si quid peccas, doles.

If you commit any sin, you (are sure to) suffer for it.

Si tonuit, fulguravit quoque.

If it thundered, it also lightened.

REM. 1 (for Teachers). — In conditions of the first class, the conditional *form* is often rather accidental than essential. The thought would be equally well expressed in case another conjunction — e. g. *because*, *since*, *as sure as* — were substituted for *if*. The possibility of such a substitution will be found the best practical test by which conditions of the first form may be recognized. *E. g.,* —

Si arae sunt, Di quoque sunt
really means, —

Since there are altars, there are also Gods.

Si tonuit, fulguravit quoque,

So sure as it has thundered, lightning has preceded.

REM. 2. — A conditional sentence of the first form is generally convertible into a general proposition.

Si arae sunt, Di quoque sunt
may be translated, —

Wherever there are altars, there are also Gods.

Si tonuit, fulguravit quoque,

Lightning always attends thunder.

G R E E K.

First form:
Condition
assumed as

True.

20.

I. **Sumptio Dati.** Truth of supposition taken for granted.

Indicative (any tense) in the Protasis;

Indicative (any tense) in the Apodosis.

Eἰ πάρεστι, καλῶς ἔχει.

Eἰ βωμοί εἰσιν, καὶ Θεοί εἰσιν.

Eἰ τι ἀμαρτάνεις, ἀλγεῖς.

Eἰ ἐβρόντησε, καὶ ἥστραψεν.

REM. 1 (for Teachers).—In conditions of the first class (which are probably more common in Greek than in Latin) the conditional form is often rather accidental than otherwise. The thought would equally well be expressed by the substitution for *if* of some other conjunction; e. g. *because*, *since*, *as sure as*. The possibility of such a substitution will be found a convenient practical test, by which conditions of the first form may be recognized. *E. g.,—*

Eἰ βωμοί εἰσιν, καὶ Θεοί εἰσιν
really means,—

Since (or where) there are altars, there are also Gods.

Eἰ ἐβρόντησε, καὶ ἥστραψεν,

So sure as it has thundered, lightning has preceded.

REM. 2.—A conditional sentence of the first form is generally convertible into a general proposition.

Eἰ βωμοί εἰσιν, καὶ Θεοί εἰσιν.

Wherever there are altars, there are also Gods.

Eἰ ἐβρόντησε, καὶ ἥστραψεν.

Lightning always attends thunder.

Second
Form:
Condition
contrary
to Fact.
21.

II. Sumptio Falsi. Supposition contrary to reality.

Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in Protasis;

Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in Apodosis.

Si adesset, bene esset.

If he were present, it were well.

Si quid peccares, doleres.

If you should commit any sin, you would suffer (for it).

Si tonuisset, fulgurasset.

If it had thundered, it would have lightened.

REM. I.—When the imperfect is used in both clauses (or in either clause), the contrary reality would be expressed by the present: *e. g.* **si adesset** (contrary reality, **non adest**); **bene esset** (contrary reality, **non bene est**). When the pluperfect is used in both clauses (or in either clause), the contrary reality would be expressed by the historical perfect, or by the imperfect: *e. g.* **si potuisset** (contrary reality, **non poterat**, or **non potuit**); **venisset** (contrary reality, **non vēnit**).

REM. 2.—The indicative, instead of the subjunctive, in the Apodosis, signifies that a thing was certain, or was intended, or ought to be.

In amplexūs filiae ruebat, nisi lictores obstitissent.

He would certainly have rushed into his daughter's embrace, had not the lictors prevented.

Second
Form:
Condition
contrary
to Fact.
21.

II. Sumptio Falsi. Supposition contrary to reality.

Past tense of the Indicative in Protasis ;

Past tense of the Indicative with *ἄν* in Apodosis.

Eἰ παρῆν, καλῶς ἀν εἶχεν.

Eἴ τι ἡμάρτανες, ἤλγεις ἄν.

Eἴ ἐβρόντησεν, ἤστραψεν ἄν.

REM. I.—When the imperfect is used in both clauses (or in either clause), the contrary reality would be expressed by the present : e.g. *εἰ παρῆν* (contrary reality, *οὐ πάρεστι*) ; *καλῶς ἀν εἶχεν* (contrary reality, *οὐκ ἔχει καλῶς*). When the aorist is used in both clauses (or in either clause), the contrary reality would be expressed by the aorist or by the imperfect : e.g. *Εἰ ἤδυνήθη* (contrary reality, *οὐκ ἤδυνήθη* or *οὐκ ἤδύνατο*) ; *ἥλθεν ἀν* (contrary reality, *οὐκ ἥλθεν*).

REM. 2.—*ἄν* is sometimes omitted in the Apodosis of a conditional sentence of the second form, especially with impersonal verbs denoting *obligation*, *propriety*, &c. ; e.g. *ἴδει, ἔχρην, χρῆν*, &c.

Καλὸν ήν αὐτῷ, εἰ οὐκ ἐγεννήθη δ ἀνθρωπος ἐκεῖνος.

It were (was) good for that man, if he had not been born.

NOTE.—The use of *οὐκ* instead of *μή* in the Protasis, in this and similar cases, is explained by the close connection of the negative with the verb, with which it forms one idea. So often,—

οὐ φημι, I deny.

Εἰ φήσ, ή εἰ οὐ φήσ.

Third
Form:
Condition
Probable.
22.

III. Sumptio Dandi. Truth of supposition will be granted. Supposition referring to the future, with present expectation that it will be realized.

Future Indicative (or, for completed action, Future Perfect Indicative) in Protasis;

Future Indicative in Apodosis.

Si aderit, bene erit.

If he be (shall be) present, it will be well.

Si quid peccaveris, dolebis.

If you shall have committed any sin, you shall suffer (for it).

REM. — This variety of condition, it will be observed, shows the same use of the moods (indicative in both clauses) as the first form, from which it is here distinguished only for the sake of symmetry (for comparison with the Greek).

Fourth
Form:
Condition
Imaginary.
23.

IV. Sumptio Ficti. Of that which is imaginary. Supposition referring to the future, but without present probability.

Present subjunctive (perfect subjunctive for completed action) in Protasis;

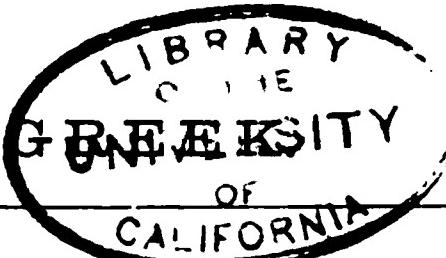
Present subjunctive in Apodosis.

Si adsit, bene sit.

If he ~~was~~ ^{were} present, it would be well.

Si quid pecces, }
 peccaveris, } doleas.

If you committed any fault, you would suffer (for it).



Third
Form:
Condition
Probable.
22.

III. **Sumptio Dandi.** Truth of supposition will be granted. Supposition referring to the future, with present expectation that it will be realized.

Subjunctive with $\epsilon\acute{a}\nu$ ($\check{\eta}\nu$, $\check{\alpha}\nu$) in Protasis ; Future Indicative, or Imperative, or some other expression implying futurity, in Apodosis.

'E\grave{a}n \pi\acute{a}r\grave{\eta}, \kappa\acute{a}\lambda\grave{\omega}s \epsilon\acute{e}\xi\acute{e}\iota.

'E\grave{a}n \tau\acute{i} \acute{a}\mu\acute{a}r\grave{\tau}\eta\acute{s}, \grave{\alpha}\lambda\gamma\eta\sigma\acute{\epsilon}\iota\acute{s}.

REM. — The subjunctive with $\epsilon\acute{a}\nu$ in the Protasis often gives place, for greater vividness, to the future indicative with $\epsilon\acute{l}$. In this case the condition becomes identical, in form and meaning, with one of the first form.

E\acute{i} \pi\acute{a}r\acute{e}\sigma\acute{\tau}\alpha\acute{i}, \kappa\acute{a}\lambda\grave{\omega}s \epsilon\acute{e}\xi\acute{e}\iota.

Fourth
Form:
Condition
Imaginary.
23.

IV. **Sumptio Ficti.** Of that which is imaginary. Supposition referring to the future, but without present probability.

Optative in the Protasis ;

Optative with $\grave{\alpha}\nu$ in the Apodosis.

E\acute{i} \pi\acute{a}r\acute{e}\iota\acute{n}, \kappa\acute{a}\lambda\grave{\omega}s \grave{\alpha}\nu \acute{e}\chi\acute{o}\iota.

E\acute{i} \tau\acute{i} \acute{a}\mu\acute{a}r\acute{a}\nu\acute{o}\iota\acute{s}, \grave{\alpha}\lambda\gamma\acute{o}\iota\acute{s} \grave{\alpha}\nu.

L A T I N.

Mixed
Forms.
24.

Mixed forms are much less common in Latin than in Greek. Yet we find examples like the following:—

Dies deficiet (3), si velim (4) causam dicere.

Day would (will) fail me, if I should wish to defend the cause.

Condition
Implied.
25.

The condition is sometimes involved in a participle, or in some other word, and sometimes is merely implied.

Non potestis, omnia voluptate dirigentes, vir-tutem retinere.

You cannot, if you arrange everything according to pleasure, retain your manhood.

Pace tuâ, dixerim.

I would say it, by your leave.

Velle.

I could wish.

Velim.

I should wish.

G R E E K.

Mixed
Forms.
24.

To express various shades of meaning, the third and fourth forms are sometimes blended,— the Protasis taking one, the Apodosis the other.

'Eàv παρῆ (3), *καλῶς ἀν εχοι* (4).

If he be present, it would be well.

Eἰ παρείη (4), *καλῶς ἔξει* (3).

Condition
Implied.
25.

The condition is frequently involved in a participle, or is simply implied.

$$\check{\epsilon}\chi\omega\nu = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \epsilon'\tau\iota \check{\epsilon}\chi\epsilon\iota\varsigma. \\ \acute{\epsilon}\acute{\alpha}\nu \tau\iota \check{\epsilon}\chi\eta\varsigma. \\ \epsilon'\tau\iota \check{\epsilon}\chi\o\iota\varsigma. \\ \epsilon''\tau\iota \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \epsilon'\check{\chi}\epsilon\varsigma. \\ \acute{\epsilon}\sigma\chi\epsilon\varsigma. \end{array} \right. \end{array} \right.$$

ἡ βουλόμην ἀν (*εἰ ηδυνάμην*).

βουλοίμην ἀν (*εἰ δυναίμην*).

L A T I N.

General or
Indefinite
Conditions.

26.

Conditional sentences in Latin, as in Greek, may contain the statement of a general truth, or may imply repeated action. They are, however, less common than in Greek, and do not require extended treatment.

G R E E K.

General or
Indefinite
Conditions.

26.

Compare the examples,—

- | | |
|-----------|--|
| A. | $\epsilon\acute{a}n \tau i \lambda\acute{a}\beta\eta,$ δώσει,
If he receives anything, he will give it,
$\epsilon\acute{i} \tau i \lambda\acute{a}\beta\sigma i,$ δοίη ἄν,
If he should receive anything, he would give it, |
|-----------|--|

with the following:—

- | | |
|-----------|--|
| B. | $\epsilon\acute{a}n \tau i \lambda\acute{a}\beta\eta,$ δίδωσι.
If he receives anything, he (uniformly) gives it.
$\epsilon\acute{i} \tau i \lambda\acute{a}\beta\sigma i,$ ἐδίδου.
If he received anything, he (uniformly) gave it. |
|-----------|--|

The first pair are Particular, the second, General Conditions. The first refer to a supposed single case ; the second imply repeated action, or contain a general truth. In the first, ϵi or $\epsilon\acute{a}v$ really means “if in a particular instance” ; in the second, “whenever.”

It is further to be observed, in the second pair of examples, that :—

1. The mood of the Protasis is determined, not by considering the nature of the condition (whether it is taken for granted, contrary to fact, probable, or possible), but by the tense of the Apodosis, according to the principle of the sequence of moods (Rule 5).
2. The verb of the Apodosis is in the indicative, and is a form expressing repeated action.
3. The Protases in both pairs of examples are identical ; the verbs of the Apodosis, regularly in the indicative, and expressing repeated action, are what mark the second pair of conditions as general.

L A T I N.

Use of
Moods in
Indefinite
Conditional
Sentences.

27.

General or indefinite conditions require, as a rule, the indicative in both Protasis and Apodosis ; yet the following parallels to Greek usage may be given :—

1. *For present time,—*

Si quid accipiat, dat.

2. *For past time,—*

**Accusatores, si facultas incideret, poenis
adficiebantur.**

Hypotheti-
cal (or Con-
ditional)
Relative
Sentences.

28.

Conditional relative sentences, or sentences in which the relative may be resolved into **si** with a personal or demonstrative or indefinite pronoun, occur, of course, in Latin. They require, however, no extended illustration.

GREEK.

Use of
Moods in
Indefinite
Conditional
Sentences.

27.

General conditions appear in the two following forms:—

1. *For present time,—*

Subjunctive with $\epsilon\alpha\nu$ in Protasis ;

Present indicative in Apodosis.

2. *For past time,—*

Optative with ϵi in Protasis ;

Past tense of indicative in Apodosis.

Cf., for examples, Rule 26, B.

REM.—An important application of the principles just stated will be seen in the explanation of the employment of moods in temporal clauses. (Cf. Rule 30, 2, p. 48.)

Hypotheti-
cal (or Con-
ditional)
Relative
Sentences.

28.

Conditional relative sentences are relative sentences implying a condition. The conditions involved may be particular or general, and differ in no respect from the cases already explained, but are sufficiently illustrated by the following examples:—

A.—Particular Conditions.

1. *"Α μὴ οἶδα, οὐδὲ οἴομαι εἰδέναι =
Εἴ τινα μὴ οἶδα, οὐδὲ οἴομαι εἰδέναι.*

What I do not know (if I do not know a thing), I do not think I know.

2. *Οὐκ ἀν ἐπεχειροῦμεν πράττειν ἀ μὴ ἡπιστά-
μεθα =*

*Εἴ τινα μὴ ἡπιστάμεθα, οὐκ ἀν ἐπεχειροῦμεν
πράττειν.*

We would not undertake to do what we did not understand.

L A T I N .

Concessive
Clauses.
29.

V. Concessive clauses are introduced by **quamquam**, **quamvis**, **licet**, **ut**, and **cum**, *although*. Of these conjunctions, the first is regularly joined with the indicative; the others, with the subjunctive.

G R E E K.

A.—*Particular Conditions* (continued).

3. "Οτι ἀν βούληται, δώσω =
'Εάν τι βούληται, δώσω.

I will give him (once) whatever he may wish.

4. "Οτι βούλοιτο, δοίην ἀν =
Εἰ τι βούλοιτο, δοίην ἀν.

I would give him (once) whatever he might wish.

B.—*General Conditions*.

1. "Οτι ἀν βούληται, δίδωμι =
'Εάν τι βούληται, δίδωμι.

I (uniformly) give him whatever he wants.

2. "Οτι βούλοιτο, ἐδίδουν =
Εἰ τι βούλοιτο, ἐδίδουν.

I (uniformly) gave him whatever he wanted.

Concessive
Clauses.

29.

V. Concessive clauses are introduced by *εἰ καὶ*, *ἐὰν καὶ*, *even if*; and *καὶ εἰ*, *κἄν* (*καὶ ἐάν*), *although*. They show the same uses of moods as the various forms of the conditional sentences.

Temporal
Clauses.
30.

VI. 1. Temporal clauses are introduced by the following conjunctions :—

cum, { *when*, employed most frequently in historical narrative, and then followed by imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive.

ut, { *when, postquam, after that*, — with indicative.
ubi, }

antequam, { *before that, before.*
priusquam, }

ubi primum, { *as soon as, quoties, as often as*, with indic.
simul ac, }

quam diu, *as long as*, with indicative.

dum, *while*, always with indicative, except in the **oratio obliqua.**

dum, {
donec, { *until*, always with the subjunctive.
quoad, }

Use of
Mood in
Temporal
Clauses.

2. The principle upon which the choice of mood depends may be thus stated (it applies especially to **antequam** and **priusquam**) :—

Temporal conjunctions are followed by the indicative to express absolute time, *i.e.* when the event has actually happened or is certain to happen; when they denote rela-

Temporal
Clauses.
30.

VI. 1. Temporal clauses are introduced by the following conjunctions :—

ὅτε, ὅπότε, ἥνικα, ὡς, — when.

ἐπεὶ, ἐπειδή, — after.

πρίν, — before.

ἔως, ἔστε, ἐν φ, — as long as, until, whilst.

Use of
Mood in
Temporal
Clauses.

2. All these conjunctions are followed by the indicative to denote absolute time, *i. e.* when the event has actually happened or is certain to happen ; when they denote relative time, *i. e.* when the event has not happened or is uncertain, they introduce semi-conditional clauses (general conditions), and furnish, in the moods employed, a precise parallel to them.

L A T I N.

Mood in
Temporal
Clauses.

tive time, *i.e.* when the event has not happened or is uncertain, they introduce semi-conditional clauses, and require the subjunctive.

Caesar, postquam urbem ceperat, Romam redivit.

Caesar, after he had taken the city, returned to Rome.

Ne judicaveris, priusquam omnia audiveris.

Do not judge before you have heard all.

The following is the formula :—

After a primary tense, *ἀντίθετον* is annexed to the conjunction, generally forming one word with it, and the verb of the temporal clause is in the subjunctive. After a secondary tense, the verb of the temporal clause is in the optative, without *ἀντίθετον*.

Ταῦτα ἐποίουν μέχρι σκότος ἐγένετο.

They did this until darkness came on (absolute time).

ὅταν ἀπαντά ἀκούσῃς, κρῖνον.

When you (shall) have heard all, judge.

ἐπειδὴ δέ τι ἐμφάγοιεν, ἀνίσταντο.

After they had eaten something, they would rise up.

όπότε ὥρα εἴη ἀρίστον, ἀνέμενεν αὐτοὺς ἔστε ἐμφάγοιεν.

Whenever it was time for breakfast, he used to wait for them until they ate something.

οὐδαμόθεν ἀφίεσαν πρὶν παραθεῖεν αὐτοῖς ἀριστον.

They dismissed them from no place before spreading a meal before them.

REM. — *πρὶν*, besides the constructions mentioned above, may take the infinitive in any tense.

Infinitive.

31.

The infinitive and the gerund, taken together, make up all the cases of a verbal noun (cf. English verbal nouns in -ing); *e.g.*, —

Nom. **Errare humanum est.**

Gen. **Errandi cupidus est homo.**

Dat. **Errando aptus est homo.**

Acc. { **Errare homo amat.**
 { **Ad errandum homo aptus est.**

Abl. **Errando homo miser fit.**

Participle.

32.

The participle, in Latin, may be the equivalent of the adjective clause, and of the adverbial clause in most of its varieties; *e.g.*, —

Of an Adjective Clause: —

Epistulam sibi commissam (= quae commissa erat) detulit.

He delivered the letter which had been intrusted to him.

Of Adverbial Clauses: —

Final.

Alexander ad Jovem Ammonem pergit, consulturus (= ut consulat) de origine sua.

Alexander goes to Jupiter Ammon to consult respecting his origin.

G R E E K.

Infinitive.

31.

The infinitive joined with the neuter article may be used in all the cases ; *e. g.*, —

Nom. τὸ ἀμαρτάνειν.

Gen. τοῦ ἀμαρτάνειν.

Dat. τῷ ἀμαρτάνειν.

Acc. (τὸ) ἀμαρτάνειν.

Participle.

32.

The participle, in Greek, is constantly employed as the equivalent of the adjective clause, and of the adverbial clause in all its varieties ; *e. g.*, —

Of an Adjective Clause : —

οἱ παρόντες (= ἔκεινοι οἱ πάρειστιν).

Those who are present.

Of Adverbial Clauses : —

Final.

*Ἐρχομαι ταῦτα ἐρῶν (= ἵνα ταῦτα εἴπω).

I come to say this.

*Ἡλθε θυγατέρα λυσόμενος.

He came to ransom his daughter.

L A T I N.

Participle.

Causal.

Conditional.

Concessive.

Temporal.

Nihil affirmo mihi ipse diffidens (= quia dif-
fido).

I affirm nothing, because I distrust myself.

Ad cenam vocatus (= si vocatus ero) ibo.

I will go to supper, if I am invited.

**Non statim poenis adficiuntur, quotidie delin-
quentes** (= cum delinquant).

They are not at once punished, although daily at fault.

Hos ego digrediens lacrimis affabar obortis
(digrediens = cum digrederer).

G R E E K.

Participle.

Causal.

'*Ηξίου ἀδελφὸς αὐτοῦ ὅν* (*ὅν* = *ὅτι εἴη*).

He demanded, because he was his brother.

Conditional.

<i>εἰ ᔁχω,</i>	}	<i>δίδωμι.</i>
<i>εἰ εἰχον,</i>		<i>ἐδίδων ἄν.</i>
<i>εἰ ᔁσχον,</i>		<i>ἔδωκα ἄν.</i>
<i>εἰν ᔁχω,</i>		<i>δώσω.</i>
<i>εἰν σχῶ,</i>	}	<i>δώσω.</i>
<i>εἰ ᔁχοιμι,</i>		<i>διδοίην ἄν.</i>
<i>εἰ σχοίην,</i>		<i>δοίην ἄν.</i>

Concessive.

καὶ περ σοφὸς ὅν, βελτίων ἀν γένοιο.

Although you are wise, you might become better.

(The concessive participle is commonly joined with *καὶ περ.*)

Temporal.

All participles denote this relation, and the Greek distinguishes very accurately by the use of the present, perfect or aorist, and future participle, whether the action denoted by the participle is represented as occurring simultaneously with, previous to, or subsequent to, that of the principal verb of the sentence.

ταῦτα ἀκούσας ἀπῆλαυνεν.

When he had heard this, he rode away.

ταῦτα εἰπὼν ἐπαύσατο (λέγων).

When he had said this, he ceased (speaking).

L A T I N.

Temporal.

NOTE.—The use of the perfect participle passive is especially common in Latin, to denote time (such a participle is sometimes called a preliminary participle).

Caesar Gallis victis (= cum Galli victi essent or cum Gallos vicisset) Romam rediit.

When Cæsar had conquered the Gauls, he returned to Rome.

G R E E K.

Temporal.

NOTE.—The aorist participle in Greek may very fitly be called a preliminary participle. The Greek uses the tense of the participle with great accuracy, often employing the aorist when we, in English, should employ a present participle. *E.g.,—*

English. Coming up, he asked his name.

Greek. προσελθὼν ἤρετο τὸ ὄνομα αὐτοῦ.

33.

The various uses of the participle above enumerated all come under the head of circumstantial; *i.e.* the participle adds a circumstance, more or less important, modifying the principal verb or predicate of the sentence. If this circumstance is essential to the thought, and cannot be omitted without taking away the leading idea from the sentence, the participle is said to be supplementary.

The supplementary participle is used most frequently after the following verbs:—

1. Verbs of judging, feeling, knowing, &c., as the equivalent of a substantive clause. (Cf. Rule 7, 3.)
2. Verbs of beginning, continuing, enduring, ceasing, &c.

NOTE.—The supplementary participle is especially common with λανθάνω, παύομαι, τυγχάνω, φθάνω.

ἔλαθομεν ἀφικόμενοι.

We arrived without knowing it.

ἔπαύσατο λέγων.

He ceased speaking.

ἔτυχε παρών.

He happened to be present.

φθάνουσιν τοὺς πολεμίους γενόμενοι ἐπὶ τῷ ἄκρῳ.

They anticipated the enemy in gaining the height.

